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THE APPLICATION OF INTERMITTENT
DETONATIVE COMBUSTION TO
JET PROPULSION

VADYM VICTOROVICH UTGOFF

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THE APPLICATION
of
INTERMITTENT DETONATIVE COMBUSTION
to
JET PROPULSION

by

VADYM VICTOROVICH UTGOFF
Lieutenant Commander, U.S. Navy
S.B., U.S. Naval Academy
(1939)

SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
MASTER OF SCIENCE

at the

MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY
(1945)

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Massachusetts Institute of Technology
Cambridge, Massachusetts
May 20, 1949

Professor Joseph S. Newall
Secretary of the Faculty
Massachusetts Institute of Technology
Cambridge, Massachusetts

Dear Professor Newall:

I take pleasure in submitting herewith a thesis entitled "Intermittent Detonative Combustion applied to Jet Propulsion", in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science in Aeronautical Engineering.

Respectfully,

1941

Memorandum for the President

January 10, 1941

Executive Order 9066
February 19, 1942

President Franklin D. Roosevelt
Secretary of the War Relocation Authority
Department of War Relocation Authority
Washington, D.C.

Dear Mr. Secretary:

I have pleasure in submitting herewith a check for \$100.00
to the War Relocation Authority for the purpose of providing relief
to the evacuees of Japanese ancestry in the United States.

Sincerely,
Franklin D. Roosevelt

W. H. H. H.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author wishes to express his appreciation for advice and assistance rendered by Professor E.S. Taylor, Professor W.R. Hawthorne, and Professor J.S. Newall, who all helped him to an understanding of basic principles. Acknowledgement is also due to Mr. D.G. Russ, civilian engineer at the Naval Air Material Center, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, who made available to the author the Volkenrode Translation, report No. L.F. 67, of the work of Hoffman in this field.

Particular gratitude and appreciation are due Mr. George Bemis, 282 Highland Street, Milton, Massachusetts, who gave the author free and unstinting use of his machine shop and advice in shop practice, and supplied him with materials gratis.

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Statement of the Problem.

The need for increased power output and improved fuel economy in thermal jets has led to the use of higher pressure ratios and turbine inlet temperatures, with consequent multiplication of the problems of compressor and turbine design and reduced reliability and endurance. Attempts to minimize or eliminate these problems by use of pulsejets and ramjets have not met with marked success for well known reasons.

Detonative combustion offers an attractive solution to the problems involved in producing high pressure ratios and tolerating high temperatures. Detonative combustion may be considered to be a process in which combustion takes place within the high pressure area of a compression shock; in consequence, no mechanical compressor nor turbine are required, and as will be shown later, valves are also unnecessary.

It is the purpose of this paper to describe a thermal jet based on intermittent detonative combustion already developed; to attempt an analysis of the process involved; and to report the results of experiments conducted by the author in connection therewith.

1.2 Historical Background.

The phenomenon of detonation was discovered in 1851 by Berthelot and Vieille as well as by Mallard and Le Chatelier, who made detailed studies of the subject. Many subsequent investigations were made by Dixon and his students. The theoretical explanation of detonation was made by Chapman and Jouguet, following Becker's analysis of the compression shock. The pre-detonation period received particular attention from Sokolik and Shtokolikin, while Langweiler expressed the relation between detonation pressure and temperature and the pressure and temperature attained by combustion at constant volume. Recently, a detailed analysis has been made by Shapiro, Hawthorne, and Eichelman (reference 1).

The need for increased lower output and improved fuel economy in internal combustion engines has led to the use of higher compression ratios and higher intake temperatures, with consequent modifications of the geometry of the combustion chamber and piston design and increased reliability and endurance. Attempts to achieve or eliminate these conditions by use of catalytic converters have not met with marked success. For well known reasons, compressive combustion offers an alternative solution to the problems involved in producing high pressure gases and collecting high temperatures. Incompressible combustion may be employed to be a means in which compression takes place within the high pressure zone of a combustion chamber, in consequence, no mechanical compression and cooling are required, and as will be shown later, valves are also unnecessary.

It is the purpose of this paper to discuss a thermal jet engine on internal combustion combustion already developed, to show an analysis of the process involved, and to report the results of experiments conducted by the author in connection therewith.

H. Hoffman, of the Deutsche Forschungsanstalt für Segelflug (German Gliding Research Station) has been concerned since the spring of 1938 with the problem of developing a thermal jet operating on the principle of intermittent detonative combustion, and in a report dated November 10, 1939 described tests of a successful device (reference 2).

2. THE HOFFMAN APPARATUS

2.1 Description.

Fig. 1 shows a diagrammatic sketch of the intermittent detonative combustion apparatus developed by Hoffman (Fig. 28, reference 2). Essentially, the apparatus consists of a straight cylindrical tube closed at one end and provided with a spark-plug or other means of providing continuous ignition at the other, to which is attached a conical diffuser. Fuel and oxidizer are admitted through separate lines at the closed end of the combustion chamber in such a manner as to provide good mixing and turbulence.

The dimensions of the particular test apparatus to which reference will be made are as follows:

Length of combustion chamber.....	40.0 cm.
Diameter of combustion chamber.....	5.8 cm.
Length of diffuser.....	200.0 cm.
Diffuser half-angle of divergence.....	4.0 deg.

2.2 Operation.

The device described above operates on an intermittent cycle as follows. The combustible mixture flows toward the open end until it is ignited at the spark-plug. The flame front travels back toward the closed end, passing from ordinary combustion into detonation, and the detonation wave continues on to the baffle at the closed end where its reflection imparts a high impulse to the baffle. The pressure rise following the detonation wave imposes a temporary restriction on the flow

1. The first of the two main components of the system is the

(General Electric Research Institute) and was developed during the period

of 1939 and the period of development of the system for control of the

operation of industrial machinery and its control system (Fig. 1).

Secondly, the system is a control system of a mechanical system (Fig. 2).

2. The first component

2.1. Description

Fig. 1 shows a diagrammatic representation of the first component of the

system, which is a control system of a mechanical system (Fig. 1).

Basically, the system consists of a control system of a mechanical system

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of fresh fuel and oxidizer, extinguishing the flame. After the pressure falls fresh mixture again enters the combustion chamber and the cycle is repeated.

2.3 Results.

Using the apparatus above, Hoffman ran a series of tests to determine performance (Table 5, reference 2). The best results obtained are tabulated as follows:

Oxygen flow rate.....	13.2 gm./sec.
Gasoline flow rate.....	3.9 gm./sec.
Total flow rate.....	17.1 gm./sec.
Percent theoretical fuel.....	103.0 %
Thrust.....	3,400.6 gm.
Specific thrust.....	451.0 sec.
Specific fuel consumption.....	1.67 hr.
Theoretical specific thrust.....	457.0 sec.

2.4 Discussion.

The foregoing results present three items of particular interest. First, attention is invited to the relatively high value of specific thrust obtained. This value is of the order of the specific thrust obtainable in rockets, but it should be remembered that in this device the combustible mixture is admitted under only such pressure as is necessary to insure the rate of flow desired, amounting in no case to more than a few pounds above atmospheric, whereas in a rocket the mixture must be admitted at combustion chamber pressure, amounting to several atmospheres of pressure.

The second point of interest is the value of specific fuel consumption. This is rather high, but follows from the fact that oxygen rather than air is the oxidizer, with the consequence that the mass accelerated per pound of fuel burned is reduced. Although the detonation velocity of air-fuel mixtures is lower than that of oxygen-fuel mixtures (reference 3), the net effect of using air instead of oxygen, provided the mixture can be caused to detonate, should serve to improve specific fuel consumption.

The final point of interest is a comparison of specific thrust with theoretical specific thrust based on the enthalpy of combustion of the fuel used. It will be noted that experimental specific thrust is appreciably higher than the theoretical maximum! This result is a consequence of the fact that the apparatus operates on an intermittent cycle, so that a new mass of air enters the diffuser and is accelerated once during each cycle. Since the process does not represent a steady-state condition initial acceleration must be taken into account, and calculations based entirely on the mass of mixture involved in the combustion process will be misleading.

3. ANALYSIS

3.1 Introduction.

The analysis of an intermittent detonative combustion device presents many difficulties. Foremost among these is the problem of flow in the diffuser. During each cycle pressure and velocity in the diffuser build up to a maximum in which the pressure is many times atmospheric and the velocity many times the velocity of sound. After combustion is completed both pressure and velocity drop rapidly, and due to inertia effects the pressure drops below atmospheric, followed by back-flow in the diffuser. Such back-flow represents a loss of momentum of which account must be taken.

Another equally important problem is the determination of the point in the combustion process where detonation sets in. Such information is necessary in order to determine how much of the charge surrenders its chemical energy in ordinary combustion and how much in detonative combustion. While the length of the pre-detonation path has been determined for stagnant mixtures (reference 3), no such determination has been made for turbulent mixtures.

The final part of the report is a conclusion to the whole work. It is a summary of the results of the investigation and a statement of the author's views on the subject. It is a very important part of the report and should be written with care and precision. It should not only state the results of the investigation but also discuss the significance of these results and the implications of the author's conclusions. It should also mention any limitations of the study and suggest areas for further research.

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The pressure, temperature, and detonation velocity at the beginning of detonation are also of interest. Jost (reference 3) and Lewis and von Elbe (reference 4) state that at the moment of origin detonation pressures are essentially higher and can be up to twice as high as the pressure in the stationary wave. Moreover, such abnormally high pressures persist for appreciable distances. Unfortunately, however, there appears to be no information about the law governing decay of initial pressure to steady-state pressure.

In view of the foregoing problems, the analysis following is divided into two parts. In the first part, the problem is treated as one of steady flow; and in the second part certain gross approximations are made in order to eliminate some of the unknowns discussed above. In both cases the analysis follows the methods of Shapiro, Hawthorne, and Edelman (reference 1), and calculations are based on the tables presented by these authors.

3.2 Symbols.

In general, the same symbols will be used as those used by Shapiro, Hawthorne, and Edelman. Those pertinent, together with such additional symbols as necessary or minor changes, are listed below. Dimensions are in the foot-pound-second system. Attention is invited to the general rule that upper case letters are used wherever possible in order to reserve lower case letters for purposes of identification.

A.....cross-sectional area.
C.....speed of sound.
 C_pspecific heat at constant pressure.
 C_vspecific heat at constant volume.
D.....diameter.
F.....thrust.
H.....specific enthalpy.
 kratio of specific heats.
L.....length of duct.
M.....Mach number
N.....number of moles.
P.....pressure.
R.....gas constant.
T.....absolute temperature.

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U.....entrance velocity.
 V.....stream velocity.
 W.....mass, mass rate of flow.
 X.....distance along duct.
 d.....mass density.
 θhalf-angle of divergence.

(a).....refers to air, atmospheric.
 (c).....refers to combustion, combustion chamber.
 (d).....refers to diffuser.
 (e).....refers to exhaust.
 (f).....refers to fuel, flame.
 (i).....refers to inlet.
 (o).....refers to isentropic stagnation condition.
 (1, 2, 3).....refers to sections 1, 2, 3.
 (*).....refers to conditions where $M = 1$.
 (').....refers to conditions relative to observer moving with unburned gas.

3.5 Assumptions.

The following assumptions are made in the interest of simplifying the analysis.

1. The flow is one-dimensional.
2. Changes in stream properties are continuous except in compression shocks or in a detonation wave.
3. The gas is perfect; i.e., it obeys Boyle's and Charles' laws and the specific heats remain constant. ($k = 1.4$)
4. There is no friction.
5. No heat is lost or gained except by combustion.
6. Processes are isentropic except in a shock or detonation wave.

3.4 Continuous Detonative Combustion.

The problem of intermittent detonative combustion can be much simplified by assuming that detonation sets in immediately upon ignition, and that the time interval between explosions is zero. Under such conditions the problem may be analyzed as one of continuous detonative combustion. There is then no back-flow in the diffuser, and the device is very roughly equivalent to a ramjet in which combustion is detonative in character.

1. The first step is to identify the problem.
 2. The second step is to define the problem.
 3. The third step is to analyze the problem.
 4. The fourth step is to develop a solution.
 5. The fifth step is to implement the solution.
 6. The sixth step is to evaluate the solution.
 7. The seventh step is to monitor the solution.
 8. The eighth step is to maintain the solution.
 9. The ninth step is to improve the solution.
 10. The tenth step is to document the solution.

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1. The line is not straight.
2. Changes in slope, direction and curvature suggest an irregular motion.
3. The gas is probably not in static equilibrium and the speed of light is not constant. ($c = 1.0$)
4. There is no limit.
5. So there is not a global theory of relativity.
6. Processes are irreversible, motion is not uniform and there is no rest.

The Bureau of Investigation has been advised that the following information was received from the Bureau of Investigation on 10/10/50:

For the usual hydrocarbon explosion

$$\frac{T_02 - T_01}{T_1} = \frac{(1-M_1^2)^2}{2(k+1)M_1^2} = 6 \quad (1)$$

Solving the foregoing equation for M_1 yields two values; one of these represents normal combustion, and the other detonation, as follows:

$$M_1 = 0.18 \quad (\text{Normal combustion})$$

$$M_1 = 5.54 \quad (\text{Detonation})$$

From reference 1, equation (50), the following relation is obtained

$$\frac{P_02'}{P_1} = \frac{1+M_1^2}{k+1} \left(1 + \frac{k-1(M_1^2-1)^2}{2(1+kM_1^2)^2} \right)^{\frac{k}{k-1}} \quad (2)$$

Substituting the detonation value of M_1 in equation (2) yields

$$\frac{P_02'}{P_1} = 24.82$$

In accordance with reference 1, for the steady detonation wave, $M_2 = 1$. Following the methods of reference 1, and by use of tables contained therein, the following values are obtained:

$$\frac{T_2}{T_1} = 11.25 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{P_2}{P_1} = 17.9$$

From the equations for isentropic flow

$$T_02' = T_1 \frac{T_2}{T_1} \frac{P_1}{P_2} \frac{P_02'}{P_1}^{\frac{k-1}{k}} \quad (3)$$

and

$$T_3 = T_2 \left(\frac{P_3}{P_2} \right)^{\frac{k-1}{k}} \quad \text{and since } P_3 = P_1 = P_a$$

$$T_3 = T_1 \frac{T_2}{T_1} \frac{P_1}{P_2}^{\frac{k-1}{k}} \quad (4)$$

Combining equations (3) and (4) yields

$$T_02' - T_3 = T_1 \frac{T_2}{T_1} \frac{P_1}{P_2}^{\frac{k-1}{k}} \left(\left(\frac{P_02'}{P_1} \right)^{\frac{k-1}{k}} - 1 \right) \quad (5)$$

(2)

$$= \frac{100 - 100}{10} = \frac{0}{10} = 0$$

There is no change in the value of the ratio.

There is no change in the value of the ratio.

$$100 - 100 = 0$$

$$100 - 100 = 0$$

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There is no change in the value of the ratio.

There is no change in the value of the ratio.

$$\frac{100 - 100}{10} = 0$$

There is no change in the value of the ratio.

(4)

$$\frac{100 - 100}{10} = \frac{0}{10} = 0$$

There is no change in the value of the ratio.

$$100 - 100 = 0$$

(5)

$$\frac{100 - 100}{10} = \frac{0}{10} = 0$$

There is no change in the value of the ratio.

(6)

$$\frac{100 - 100}{10} = \frac{0}{10} = 0$$

Substituting numerical values, and solving equation (5), yields

$$T_{o2'} - T_3 = 2700^\circ \text{R.}$$

From the equation for specific thrust

$$\frac{F}{W_a} = \frac{(2JH_p/T_{o2'} - T_3)^{1/2}}{g} \quad (6)$$

is obtained

$$\frac{F}{W_a} = 177 \text{ pounds thrust/pound air/second.}$$

If the fuel used is octene, the stoichiometric fuel/air ratio is

$$\frac{W_f}{W_a} = .0665$$

and the specific fuel consumption is

$$\frac{W_f}{F} = 1.559 \text{ pounds fuel/pound thrust/hour.}$$

It is of interest to compare the foregoing results with the theoretical results obtainable for a stoichiometric mixture of octene and air. The value of octene is

$$H_c = 19,150 \text{ Btu/pound.}$$

$$\frac{F_{th}}{W_c} = \frac{(2JH_c)(.0665)^{1/2}}{g} = 247.5 \text{ pounds thrust/pound air/second.}$$

and the specific fuel consumption is

$$\frac{W_f}{F} = 1.008 \text{ pounds fuel/pound thrust/hour.}$$

From the foregoing it is apparent that continuous detonative combustion is not characterized by very high efficiency. This is not a surprising conclusion, in view of the fact that the efficiency of compression through a compression shock falls off rapidly with increasing Mach number. However, it should be noted that values of specific thrust and specific fuel consumption obtained above are not significantly different from like figures for current turbojets. In the next section an attempt will be made to apply the foregoing methods of analysis to intermittent detonative combustion, and a comparison will be made with the results obtained by Hoffman.

$$2001 - 2000 = 2001 - 2000$$

From the equation for the first period

$$\frac{1}{2} = \frac{(2001 - 2000) + 2000}{2}$$

is obtained

$$\frac{1}{2} = 2001 - 2000 + 2000$$

It can be seen that the equation for the first period is

$$\frac{1}{2} = 2001 - 2000$$

and the equation for the second period is

$$\frac{1}{2} = 2002 - 2001$$

It is of interest to compare the equation for the first

period with the equation for the second period. The

equation for the first period is

$$\frac{1}{2} = 2001 - 2000$$

$$\frac{1}{2} = \frac{(2001 - 2000) + 2000}{2}$$

and the equation for the second period is

$$\frac{1}{2} = 2002 - 2001$$

From the equation for the first period

it can be seen that the equation for the first period is

a weighted average, in which the first period is

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8.5 Intermittent Detonative Combustion.

In the preceding section the assumption was made that the time interval between explosions is zero, with the necessary consequence that flow was continuous and no mass other than that of the combustible mixture entered the apparatus. With intermittent operation the last conclusion is no longer valid, because now there exists the possibility of back flow into the diffuser and a consequent increase in the mass accelerated.

As before, however, it will be assumed that detonation sets in immediately upon ignition. Such an assumption is not as arbitrary as may at first appear. It may be remembered from the discussion in section 8.1 that at the instant detonation sets in, and for an appreciable time thereafter, detonation pressures are abnormally high, and may be as to twice the steady-state values. This effect will offset, to some extent, the fact that detonation does not actually commence with ignition, as here assumed.

In order to analyze flow in the diffuser it will be assumed that at the instant exhaust velocity drops to zero, pressure distribution is a sine function of axial position, satisfying the following boundary conditions:

At $x = 0$, $P = P_1$; at $x = L_c$, $P = 0$; at $x = L_c + L_d$, $P = P_1$;
and at $x = L_c + \frac{P_{02}'}{P_1} L_d$, $P = P_{02}'$.

These conditions represent an asymmetrical sine wave with a minimum equal to P_1 at the baffle where fresh mixture enters; a minimum of zero at the spark plug; and another maximum equal to P_{02}' at some distance from the end of the diffuser as will give a pressure equal to P_1 at the diffuser exit. The equation expressing pressure distribution in the diffuser may then be written as follows:

$$P = P_{02}' \sin \pi \frac{P_1 (x - L_c)}{P_{02}'} \quad (7)$$

As $\frac{P_1}{P_{02}'}$ = 0.5402 (from the preceding analysis)

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[illegible]

$$f_1(x) = 1, \quad f_2(x) = 1.7x, \quad f_3(x) = x^2 \text{ and } f_4(x) = 1.4x^3$$

There are three reasons for this. First, the fact that the child is not yet a citizen, and therefore not yet a member of the community, is a fact which is not taken into account in the law. Second, the fact that the child is not yet a citizen, and therefore not yet a member of the community, is a fact which is not taken into account in the law. Third, the fact that the child is not yet a citizen, and therefore not yet a member of the community, is a fact which is not taken into account in the law.

the angle is small for all values of l in the diffuser; therefore the sine can be considered equal to the angle, and equation (7) reduces to

$$P = P_1 \frac{(1-l_2)}{l_2} \quad (8)$$

From the adiabatic gas relation

$$d = d_1 \left(\frac{P}{P_1} \right)^{\frac{1}{k}}$$

and so

$$P_2 = P_1$$

$$d = d_1 \left(\frac{P}{P_1} \right)^{\frac{1}{k}} \quad (9)$$

Substituting (8) in (9) yields

$$d = d_1 \frac{(1-l_2)^{\frac{1}{k}}}{l_2} \quad (10)$$

Since the volume of the diffuser can be represented as a simple function of l , the ratio of the mass of residual gas to the mass of air entering the diffuser can be obtained by taking the integral of (10) on l over the diffuser length and dividing this by the product of entering air density and diffuser length, yielding

$$\frac{W_R}{W_d} = \frac{d_1 (k+1)}{d_1 k} \quad (11)$$

or

$$\frac{W_R}{W_d} = \frac{T_1 (k+1)}{T_2 k} \quad (12)$$

after the pressure has become uniform throughout and equal to P_1 .

If the ratio of the volume of the diffuser to the volume of the combustion chamber is known, the ratio of the total mass recirculated to the mass of fresh mixture may be written. Let the volume ratio above be designated by "Y". Then

$$\frac{W_R}{W_d} = 1 + Y \left(\frac{1 + \frac{d_1 (k+1)}{d_1 k}}{1 + \frac{k+1}{k}} \right)$$

The angle is small, but not negligible. It is the ratio of the vertical displacement to the horizontal distance. The angle is small, but not negligible. It is the ratio of the vertical displacement to the horizontal distance.

(18)

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{d}{dt} \right) = \frac{d^2}{dt^2}$$

From the definition of the derivative

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{d}{dt} \right) = \frac{d^2}{dt^2}$$

and so

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{d}{dt} \right) = \frac{d^2}{dt^2}$$

(19)

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{d}{dt} \right) = \frac{d^2}{dt^2}$$

Substituting (18) in (19) yields

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{d}{dt} \right) = \frac{d^2}{dt^2}$$

(20)

Since the value of the derivative is not constant, the derivative is not constant.

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(21)

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{d}{dt} \right) = \frac{d^2}{dt^2}$$

and

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{d}{dt} \right) = \frac{d^2}{dt^2}$$

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Substituting (21) in (22) yields

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{d}{dt} \right) = \frac{d^2}{dt^2}$$

or

$$\frac{W_3}{W_2} = 1 + Y \left(\frac{1 + \frac{T_1}{T_3} \frac{k+1}{k}}{1 + \frac{k+1}{k}} \right) \quad (13)$$

and by substituting for T_1 and T_3 from the preceding section

$$\frac{W_3}{W_2} = 1 + .505Y \quad (14)$$

It is now necessary to calculate the loss of momentum due to back flow in the diffuser. The mean pressure in the diffuser at the point back flow begins may be obtained from equation (5), yielding

$$\frac{P_2}{P_1} = .5 \quad (15)$$

The specific thrust due to back flow is then

$$-\frac{F_2}{W_2} = \left(\frac{2TC_2 T_1 (1 - (\frac{P_2}{P_1})^{\frac{k-1}{k}})}{g \left(\frac{P_1}{P_2} \right)} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = 12.9 \quad (16)$$

The ratio of mass in back flow to mass entering the combustion chamber may be derived from equation (11), yielding

$$\frac{W_4}{W_2} = \frac{k}{2k+1} = .381 \quad (17)$$

and the loss of specific thrust due to back flow is

$$\frac{\Delta F}{W_2} = -\frac{F_2}{W_2} \frac{W_4}{W_2} = 12.9 \quad (18)$$

The net thrust per pound of entering mixture for intermittent detonative combustion can now be computed, if Y is known. Two solutions will be found; the first will be based on a value of Y calculated from the area ratio of the diffuser required to satisfy the flow of the preceding section with a half-angle of divergence of 4° ; the second will be based on a value of Y calculated from the dimensions of the diffuser specified as described in section 3.2.

First Solution

$$Y = 1.3$$

$$\frac{F_1}{W_2} = 8.09$$

(13)

$$\left(\frac{\frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2}{dt^2} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} + 1}{\frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2}{dt^2} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt}} \right) f = \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} f$$

(14)

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} f = \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} f$$

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$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} f = \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} f$$

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$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} f = \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} f$$

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$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} f = \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} f$$

$$\frac{F}{W_a} = \frac{(W_a)}{(W_a)} \left(\frac{F}{W_a} \right)_{\text{Continuous}} = \frac{F_a}{W_a} \quad (15)$$

$$\frac{F}{W_a} = 422 \text{ pounds thrust/pound air/second}$$

$$\frac{W_f}{F} = .586 \text{ pounds fuel/pound thrust/hour}$$

Second Solution

$$T = 68$$

$$\frac{W_a}{W_o} = 35.2$$

$$\frac{F}{W_a} = 1037 \text{ pounds thrust/pound air/second}$$

$$\frac{W_f}{F} = .281 \text{ pounds fuel/pound thrust/hour}$$

The second solution above is obviously not realistic. It is of interest to compare the first solution with the specific thrust and fuel consumption that Hoffman obtained experimentally for his apparatus. To make the comparison of value Hoffman's data will be corrected for the difference in mass between oxygen, which he used, and air, on which all the foregoing analyses are based.

The mass ratio of air to oxygen is

$$\frac{W_a}{W_o} = 4.5$$

and the corrected specific thrust

$$\frac{F}{W_a} = \frac{F(W_a/W_o)^{\frac{1}{2}}}{W_f - 60 W_a/W_o} = 209 \text{ pounds thrust/pound air/second}$$

The corrected specific fuel consumption

$$\frac{W_f}{F} = \frac{3800 W_f}{F(W_a/W_o)^{\frac{1}{2}}} = .807 \text{ pounds fuel/pound thrust/hour}$$

The analytic specific thrust and specific fuel consumption compared with the corrected experimental specific thrust and specific fuel consumption show a consistent discrepancy, i.e., the ratio of specific thrusts is .688 and the reciprocal ratio of the specific fuel consumptions is .706.

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2}{dt^2} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{d^3}{dt^3}$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2}{dt^2} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{d^3}{dt^3}$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2}{dt^2} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{d^3}{dt^3}$$

the same result

$$T = 1$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2}{dt^2} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{d^3}{dt^3}$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2}{dt^2} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{d^3}{dt^3}$$

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It is not necessary to use the same method as above.

In view of the basic assumptions the analysis here presented appears to agree quite well with experimental data. A more detailed analysis, taking into account changes in specific heats with temperature, effects of friction, and duct efficiency will undoubtedly yield results in closer agreement with experimental data. Perhaps of even greater importance would be an analysis of flow in the diffuser based on acoustic analyses rather than the simplified assumptions here made.

4. EXPERIMENT, TESTS, AND RESULTS

4.1 Introduction.

The results of Hoffman's experiments, and the analysis preceding, indicate that there are two basic problems in the development of a practical thermal jet based on the principle of intermittent detonative combustion. The first and foremost problem is that of finding a common fuel which will detonate in air; or a means of inducing detonation in combustible mixtures which do not ordinarily detonate. The second problem, based on the assumption that the first problem is subject to solution, has to do with the question of whether detonation will occur when the air supply is raw air; i.e., if detonative mixtures under pressures easily obtainable through raw recovery will detonate in tubes open at both ends. The tests following are an attempt to find the answer to these two problems. At only qualitative results were desired, so measurements of thrust or fuel consumption were taken.

4.2 Oxygen-Gasoline Tests.

Fig. 2 is a diagrammatic sketch of the apparatus used. Essentially it consists of a combustion chamber in the form of a tube with a spark plug at one end and a baffle at the other. A hole in the baffle gives access to a mixing chamber, and oxygen and gasoline lines feed into the

mixing chamber at its far end. The gasoline and oxygen inlets to the mixing chamber are so arranged that oxygen flow will displace the gasoline.

At low mixture flow rates ordinary combustion as in a blow-torch was obtained, and after initial ignition combustion was continuous. As the flow rate was increased an oscillatory¹ combustion of exceedingly high frequency manifested itself, evidenced by an ear-splitting whistle of high pitch and great intensity. Further increase of flow rate resulted in intermittent² detonative³ combustion. This test was conducted as a rough check of Hoffman's report, and its aim was primarily to enable the author to recognize intermittent detonative combustion when encountered subsequently.

4.3 Air-Acetylene Tests.

Fig. 3 is a diagrammatic sketch of the apparatus used. As actually it is the same as the apparatus described in the preceding section, with the exception that the mixing chamber was modified as shown. An ordinary household vacuum cleaner was used as a source of air, and flow was varied by restricting the entrance area.

The results obtained in these tests were substantially identical with those obtained in the oxygen-gasoline tests, except that the frequency of oscillatory combustion was much lower, as were the reaction forces. Combustion tubes of different diameter were tried as well as different flow rates in a tube of fixed diameter, from which it was

¹By "oscillatory" combustion is meant combustion in which the flame front oscillates at some fixed frequency without ever actually going out, as in an ordinary pilotjet; and continuous ignition is necessary. By "intermittent" combustion is meant combustion which completely ceases once during each cycle and continuous or cyclic ignition is required.

²As apparatus for determining the character of combustion was available; however, the very character of the burning explosions and the large reaction forces observed are considered evidence of detonation.

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determined that the character of combustion appears to be a function of Reynold's number, changing from ordinary to oscillatory to intermittent with increasing Reynold's number.

The results of linear tests indicate that the answer to the second problem outlined in the introductory section is affirmative at least in so far as a mixture of air and acetylene is concerned.

4.4 Air-Gasoline Tests.

Fig. 4 is a diagrammatic sketch of the apparatus used. Essentially it is the same apparatus described in section 4.2 except that air supplied by an ordinary household vacuum cleaner was used instead of oxygen. Note, however, that the mixing chamber is larger in order to permit extensive vaporization of the fuel.

At low air velocities ordinary combustion as in a blow-torch was obtained. At high air velocities, and after the apparatus had become well heated so that vaporization was rapid and complete, the combustion was oscillatory in character. It was observed that the frequency in oscillatory combustion increased steadily as the fuel-air ratio was reduced until the lower limit for combustion was reached and combustion ceased. This phenomenon, for which the author has no adequate explanation at this time, was duplicated several times. Intermittent combustion could not be obtained under any circumstances, nor was there any evidence of detonation.

4.5 Air-Ether Tests.

These tests were conducted in the same manner and with the same apparatus as those described in the preceding section. The results were substantially identical, including increase of frequency with decreasing fuel-air ratio, except that ether vaporized more readily so that oscillatory combustion was obtained immediately with cold apparatus.

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4.6 Air-Ether-Gasoline Tests.

These tests were conducted in the same manner and with the same apparatus as those described in section 4.4, with the exception that a mixture of ether and gasoline in various proportions was used in place of gasoline alone. The results obtained were substantially identical with those of the preceding two sections. The time necessary for the apparatus to reach a temperature at which oscillatory combustion would take place was a function of the proportion of ether to gasoline in the mixture.

4.7 Air-Oxygen-Gasoline Tests.

These tests were conducted in the same manner and with the same apparatus as those described in section 4.4, except that an auxiliary oxygen line was connected to the mixing chamber in order to enrich the air. Only moderate enrichment was tried, and the results were not materially different from those obtained with air-enriched air.

4.8 Pulsejet Tests.

In these tests a model pulsejet was provided with a second spraying plug at approximately the mid-point of the device. The arrangement had no effect at all on the normal operation of the pulsejet irrespective of fuel-air ratio.

4.9 General Remarks.

Early in the course of the tests conducted above it became apparent that the problem of bringing fuel and oxidizer into intimate contact was a major one. A large number of different mixing chambers was tried. In general, all had the drawback of permitting flash-over and combustion within the mixing chamber under certain conditions of flow, except where detonation obtained.

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5. CONCLUSIONS and RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusions.

Hoffman has demonstrated, and two of the tests here conducted corroborate, that the principle of intermittent detonative combustion can be successfully applied to thermal jet propulsion. Analysis of intermittent detonative combustion indicates that a device based on this principle can be constructed with the promise of yielding a high specific thrust at low specific fuel consumption; moreover, such a device would have the virtues of simple design and construction, low weight, and freedom from moving parts.

From the results of the tests described in the preceding section it would appear that intermittent detonative combustion cannot be obtained with the use of gasoline or ether and air mixtures. However, Britton and Lafitte obtained detonation in stagnant ether-air mixtures; and Dixon succeeded in obtaining detonation in stagnant alcohol-air mixtures. It is therefore not unreasonable to expect that further research will lead to the discovery of some common and readily available fuel which can be used with air in an intermittent detonative combustion thermal jet.

5.2 Recommendations.

The foregoing analysis and tests show the need for basic knowledge of, research in, and analytic treatment of a number of factors. Some factors are briefly outlined in the following paragraphs.

1. Tests must be conducted in order to ascertain the effect of Reynold's number on the incidence and progress of detonation. Hitherto all investigation of the phenomenon of detonation has been concerned with stagnant mixtures. The effect of turbulence on ordinary combustion has received some attention; however, detonation in turbulent

4.1. Introduction

It is well known that the design of a structure is a complex task, and it is not possible to design a structure without taking into account the various factors which influence its behavior. The design of a structure is a process which involves the selection of a suitable material, the determination of the dimensions of the various parts, and the calculation of the stresses and strains which will be produced in the structure under the various loads which it will have to carry. The design of a structure is a process which involves the selection of a suitable material, the determination of the dimensions of the various parts, and the calculation of the stresses and strains which will be produced in the structure under the various loads which it will have to carry.

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4.2. Recommendations

The following recommendations are made for the design of a structure: 1. The material should be selected on the basis of its strength, its ductility, and its resistance to corrosion. 2. The dimensions of the various parts should be determined on the basis of the loads which the structure will have to carry. 3. The stresses and strains should be calculated on the basis of the loads which the structure will have to carry. 4. The design should be checked by a qualified engineer.

mixtures has not been investigated except in the case of internal combustion engines.

2. In connection with the preceding recommendation, different fuels in air mixtures need to be investigated to determine their detonation characteristics in turbulent flow, with a particular view to finding a common fuel or combination of common fuels which will detonate readily in air. A fuel consisting of a solution of acetylene in gasoline under pressure is a suggestion.

3. Investigation should be made of the possibility of initiating detonation in mixtures which do not detonate readily by auxiliary means; as by the use of auxiliary supply lines located so as to put a fuel-oxygen mixture in front of the fuel-air mixture, or by use of a very high voltage discharge at the spark-plug.

4. Flow in the diffuser under conditions of intermittent detonative combustion needs to be analysed at greater length and in greater detail than was done here. The problem is probably one of vibration, and the effects of resonance are undoubtedly important.

5. The feasibility of improving flow in the diffuser by means of reed or other valves at the diffuser entrance should be investigated. The use of valves is objectionable from the point of view of mechanical endurance, as is the case in the pulsejet; however, in the intermittent detonative combustion device these valves would probably not be subjected to the high impact loads present in the pulsejet.

1. The continental drift hypothesis, proposed by Alfred Wegener in 1912, was the first to suggest that the continents move. It was based on the observation that the continents of North and South America fit together like puzzle pieces, and that the fossil records of these continents were similar. Wegener also noted that the distribution of certain fossils, such as the reptile *Mesosaurus*, was restricted to the continents of South America and Africa, which were joined together in the past. He proposed that the continents had moved apart from a common supercontinent, which he called Pangaea, and that they had drifted apart over time.

2. The continental drift hypothesis was initially met with skepticism, as it lacked a mechanism to explain how the continents could move. However, the discovery of seafloor spreading in the 1950s provided a mechanism for continental drift. Seafloor spreading is the process by which new oceanic crust is formed at mid-ocean ridges and moves away from the ridge. This process causes the continents to move apart, as the oceanic crust beneath them is pushed away. The discovery of seafloor spreading provided the missing link between the continents and the ocean, and it was this discovery that led to the development of the theory of plate tectonics.

3. The theory of plate tectonics is the modern explanation for continental drift. It states that the Earth's crust is divided into several large plates that move relative to each other. The plates are made of both continental and oceanic crust, and they are driven by the forces of seafloor spreading and subduction. Seafloor spreading occurs at mid-ocean ridges, where new oceanic crust is formed and moves away from the ridge. Subduction occurs at oceanic trenches, where one plate is forced beneath another. The theory of plate tectonics provides a comprehensive explanation for the movement of the continents and the formation of the Earth's crust.

4. The theory of plate tectonics has revolutionized our understanding of the Earth's crust and the movement of the continents. It has provided a framework for understanding the formation of mountains, the distribution of earthquakes, and the evolution of the Earth's climate. The theory of plate tectonics is a cornerstone of modern geology, and it has led to a better understanding of the Earth's history and the processes that shape our planet.

5. The theory of plate tectonics has also led to a better understanding of the Earth's climate. The movement of the continents has played a major role in the Earth's climate history. For example, the formation of the supercontinent Pangaea led to a significant change in the Earth's climate, as the continents were joined together and the ocean circulation was disrupted. The theory of plate tectonics has helped us understand the relationship between the Earth's crust and its climate, and it has provided a framework for understanding the changes in the Earth's climate over time.

8. REFERENCES

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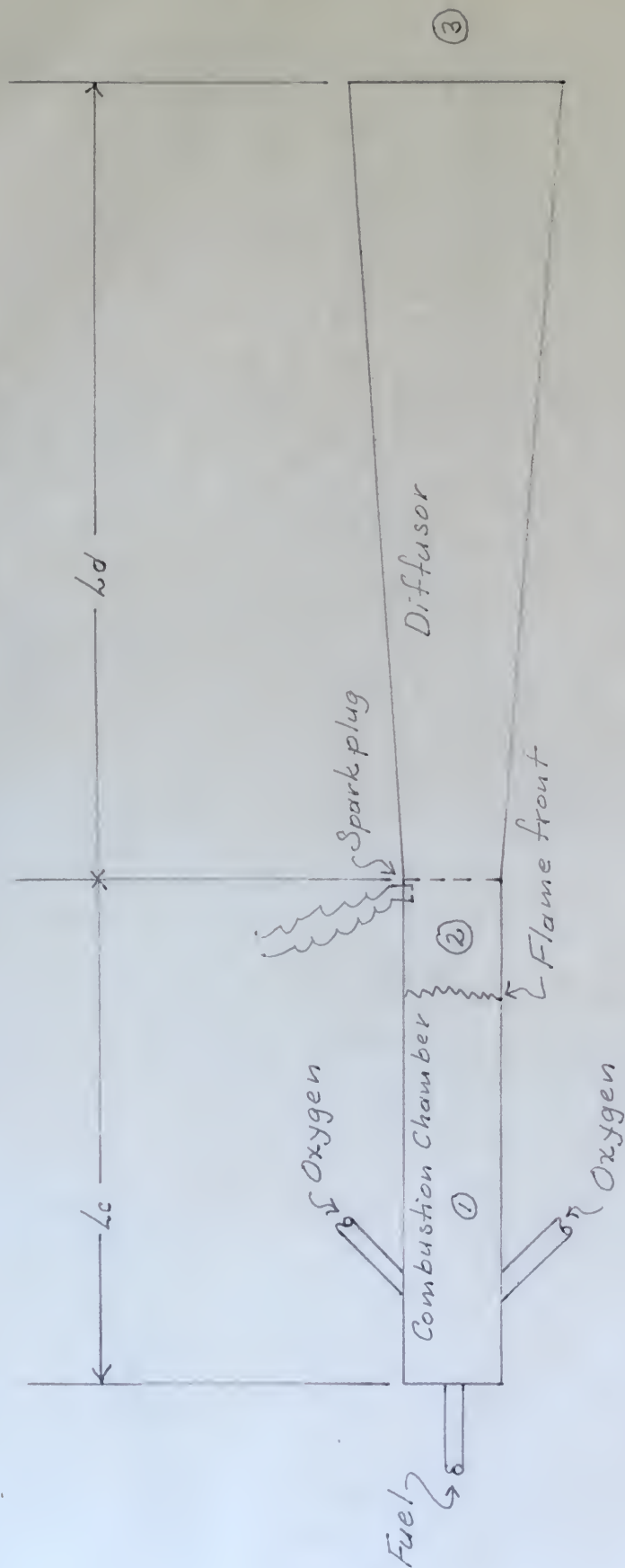
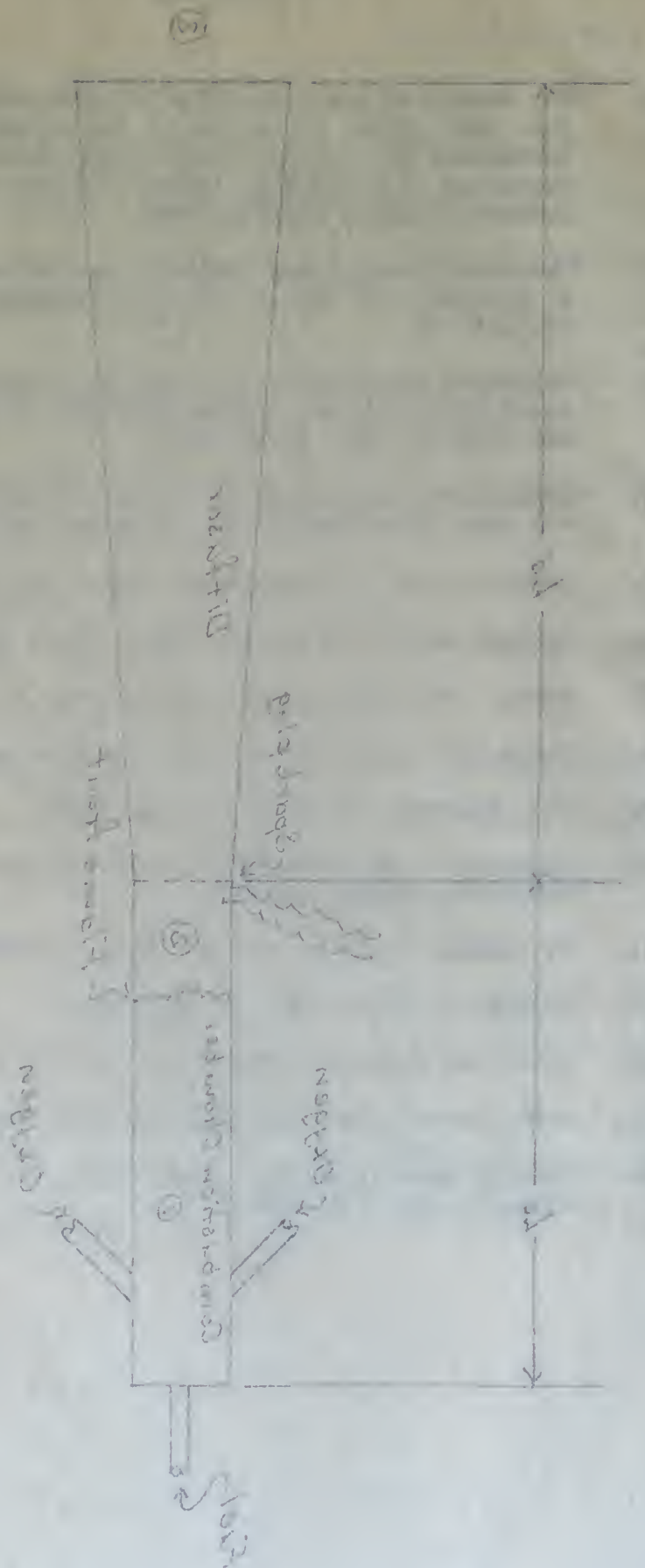


Fig. 1 Hoffman's Apparatus

Fig. 1. Diagram of the experimental setup



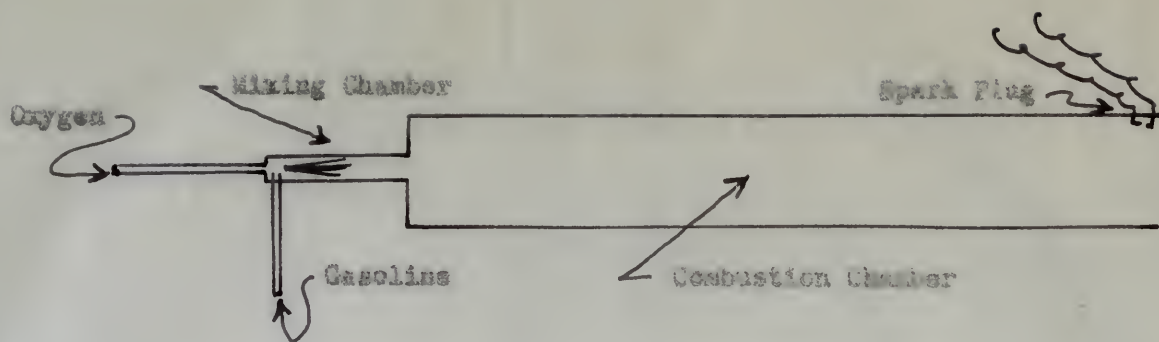


Fig. 2 Oxygen-Gasoline Test Apparatus

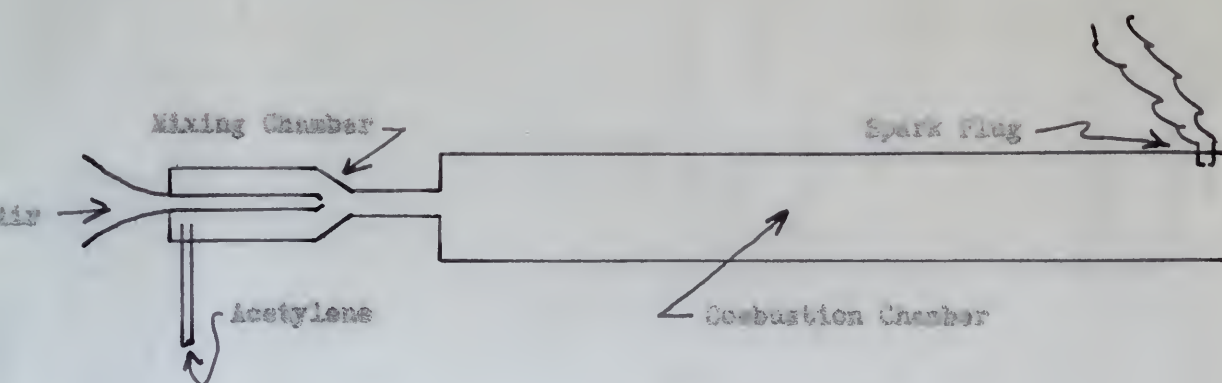


Fig. 3 Air-Acetylene Test Apparatus

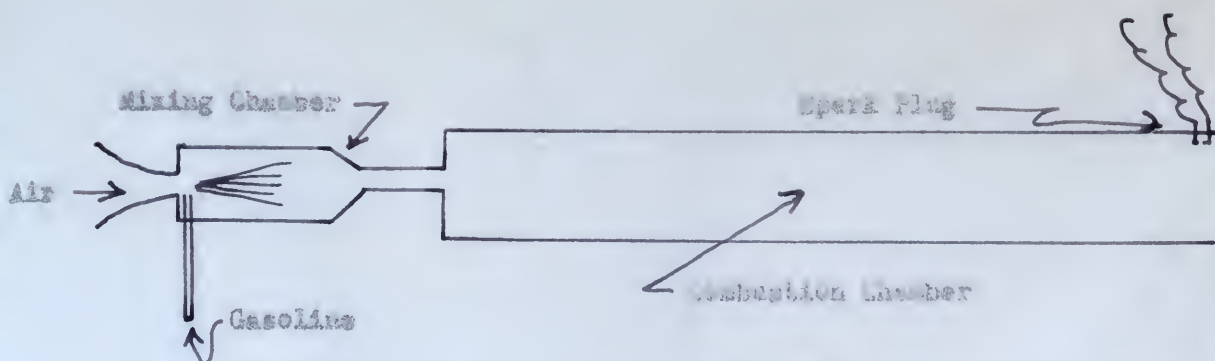


Fig. 4 Air-Gasoline Test Apparatus

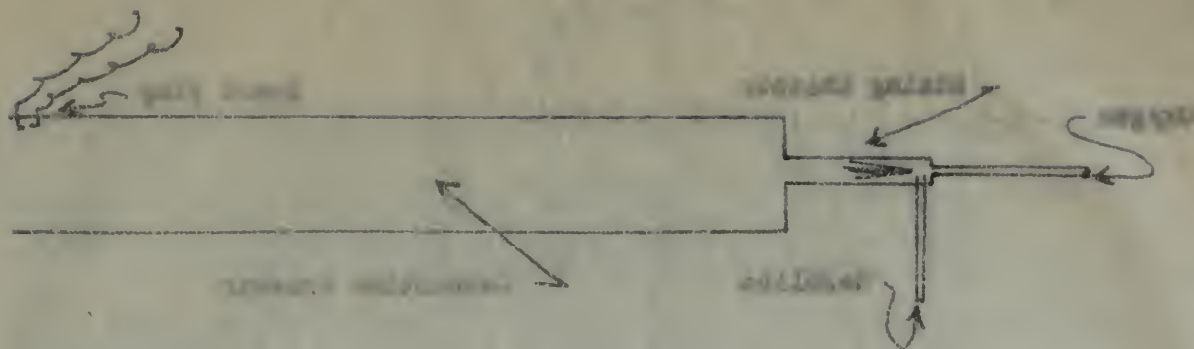


Fig. 1. Schematic diagram of a gas turbine engine.

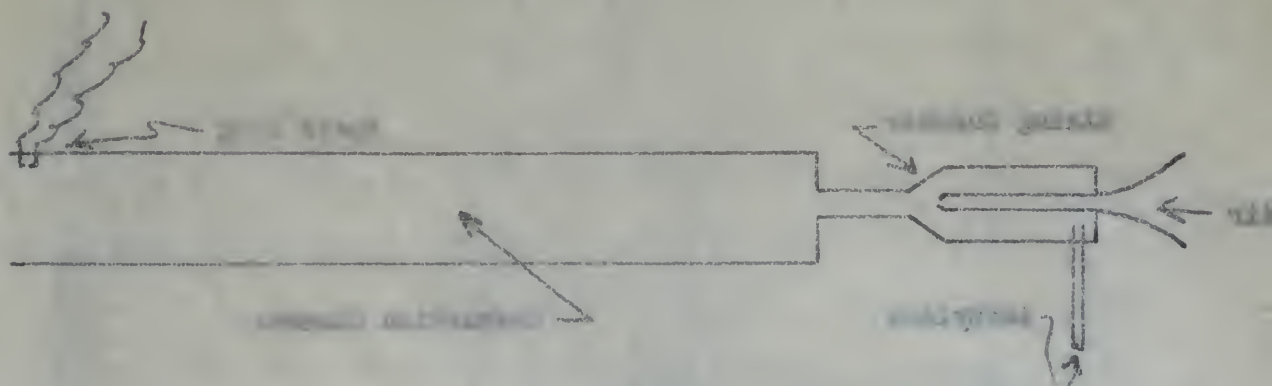


Fig. 2. Schematic diagram of a gas turbine engine with a fuel injection system.

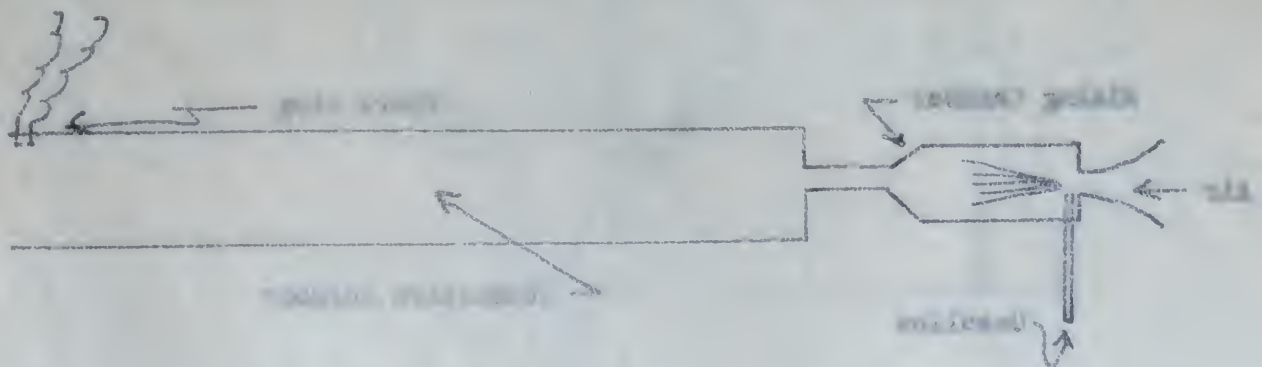


Fig. 3. Schematic diagram of a gas turbine engine with a fuel injection system and a fuel pump.

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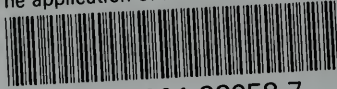
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